TRANSPORT OF MOLECULES ACROSS MICROBIAL MEMBRANES

EDITED BY

J. K. BROOME-SMITH, S. BAUMBERG, C. J. STIRLING AND F. B. WARD

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CONTENTS

CONTRIBUTORS

Anderson, D. M. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

Baker, A. Centre for Plant Sciences, Leeds Institute for Plant Biotechnology and Agriculture, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK

Bhattacharjee, H. Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Wayne State University, School of Medicine, Detroit, MI 48201, USA

Broome-Smith, J. K. Biochemistry Group, School of Biological Sciences, University of Sussex, Falmer, Brighton BN1 9QG, UK

Brownsword, J. K. School of Biological Sciences, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PT, UK

Cheng, L. W. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

Edwards, W. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, UK

Filloux, A. Laboratoire d'Ingéniérie des Systèmes Macromoléculaires, CNRS-IBSM-UPR9027, 31 Chemin Joseph Aiguier, 13402 Marseille Cedex 20, France

Ghosh, M. Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Wayne State University, School of Medicine, Detroit, MI 48201, USA

High, S. School of Biological Sciences, University of Manchester, 2.205 Stopford Building, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PT, UK

Hultgren, S. J. Department of Molecular Microbiology, Washington University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

Hynds, P. J. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, UK

Lacks, S. A. Biology Department, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, NY 11973, USA

Lee, V. T. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

Lewis, K. Tufts University Biotechnology Center, Medford, MA 02155, USA

Lopez-Huertas, E. Centre for Plant Sciences, Leeds Institute for Plant Biotechnology and Agriculture, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK

Luirink, J. Department of Microbiology, Institute of Molecular Biological Sciences, Biocentrum Amsterdam, De Boelelaan 1087, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

MASMANIAN, S. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

MITSOPOULOS, C. Biochemistry Group, School of Biological Sciences, University of Sussex, Falmer, Brighton BN1 9QG, UK

MUKHOPADHYAY, R. Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Wayne State University, School of Medicine, Detroit, MI 48201, USA

O'GORMAN, E. N. S. School of Biological Sciences, University of Manchester, 2.205 Stopford Building, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PT, UK

POOLMAN, B. Department of Microbiology, Groningen Biomolecular Sciences and Biotechnology Institute, University of Groningen, Kerklaan 30, 9751 NN Haren, The Netherlands

RAMAMURTHI, K. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

ROBINSON, C. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, UK

ROSEN, B. P. Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Wayne State University, School of Medicine, Detroit, MI 48201, USA

SAIER, JR, M. H. Department of Biology, University of California at San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093-0116, USA

SCHNEEWIND, O. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

SCOTTI, P. Department of Microbiology, Institute of Molecular Biological Sciences, Biocentrum Amsterdam, De Boelelaan 1087, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

SOTO, G. E. Department of Molecular Microbiology, Washington University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

STIRLING, C. J. School of Biological Sciences, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PT, UK

TAM, C. Department of Microbiology & Immunology, UCLA School of Medicine, 10833 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

TISSIER, C. Department of Biological Sciences, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, UK

TSENG, T.-T. Department of Biology, University of California at San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093-0116, USA

VALENT, Q. A. Department of Microbiology, Institute of Molecular Biological Sciences, Biocentrum Amsterdam, De Boelelaan 1087, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

YOUNG, B. P. School of Biological Sciences, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PT, UK

OVERVIEW: TRANSPORT OF MOLECULES ACROSS MICROBIAL MEMBRANES – A STICKY BUSINESS TO GET TO GRIPS WITH

JENNY K. BROOME-SMITH AND COSTAS MITSOPOULOS

Biochemistry Group, School of Biological Sciences, University of Sussex, Falmer, Brighton BN1 9QG, UK

INTRODUCTION

Our understanding of how molecules are transported across microbial membranes has lagged far behind our understanding of processes that occur within the aqueous compartments of these cells. There is little doubt that this is because it is so difficult to analyse the structures of the membrane proteins that mediate, or play central roles in, these processes. Membrane proteins are inherently difficult to purify and crystallize in (active) forms suitable for high-resolution analysis, because they are amphipathic molecules. The problem is exacerbated by the fact that most are non-abundant, and cannot be successfully overproduced without aggregating within, or even killing, the producing cell. Indeed, it was not until 1985 that Michel's group, applying a novel amphiphile-coating approach, which rendered the surfaces of photosynthetic reaction centre molecules uniformly polar, provided us with the first atomic resolution structure of a membrane protein (Deisenhoffer *et al.*, 1985). Even now, with the structures of soluble proteins being solved at the rate of one or more a day, the number of membrane proteins whose structures have been solved is only just into double figures. In each case ingenious strategies have had to be deployed to get crystals that are suitable for high-resolution analysis – the membrane proteins have been coated with amphiphiles and had their polar surfaces expanded with monoclonal antibodies, or crystallized in two-dimensional lattices (within phospholipid bilayers) or within custom-built three-dimensional lattices (reviewed by Ostermeier & Michel, 1997).

Against this background it is worth reflecting on the considerable importance of membrane transport processes. Eukaryotic microbes have numerous different subcellular compartments, and the proteins they synthesize must be efficiently transported to their correct subcellular destinations. Small molecules (nutrients, ions, drugs, metabolites) are transported into or out of the cell and its organelles, and specialized protein complexes within the

membranes mediate energy transduction and transmembrane signal transduction processes. Even in the relatively simple bacterial microbes a substantial proportion of the proteins synthesized in the cytoplasm (around 25–30%) are destined for extracytoplasmic locations. In the Gram-negative bacteria, which have an extra, outer, membrane surrounding the plasma membrane, extracytoplasmic proteins must be correctly localized to one of four compartments – the inner membrane, the periplasm, the outer membrane or the exterior. One major question that several articles in this symposium address is: how do large hydrophilic polypeptide substrates pass through hydrophobic membranes? Another recurring question is: how are polypeptide substrates recognized as being destined for different subcellular locations and correctly targeted to them? Many of the micro-organisms that have been most intensively studied are human, animal or plant pathogens. They make contact with their hosts via their external surfaces and appendages. Protein secretion is often of special importance for delivering virulence factors into the host cell. Finally, we are now in the age of genomics, and it is clear that amino acid sequence similarity comparisons are hugely impacting on our insight into protein evolution and biological processes. Such comparisons are of special value where membrane proteins are concerned, since structural studies lag so far behind those on soluble proteins.

TRANSPORT PROCESSES

Membrane proteins fulfil a variety of crucial cellular functions, and as Saier & Tseng remind us (this volume): 'These transporters are essential for virtually all aspects of life as we know it on Earth.' Thus, whilst it has so far proved impossible to purify, crystallize and obtain high-resolution structural data for all but a few membrane proteins, there is a very strong impetus to continue to explore and develop novel approaches that may help shed light on their structure and function. In the first few chapters of this symposium we are brought up to date on our knowledge of several different classes of membrane transport proteins. In an article that reads like a good detective novel, Kim Lewis describes the proteins that cause multidrug resistance by catalysing drug efflux. The MDR proteins are ubiquitous and occupy four different superfamilies of membrane proteins. Clinically significant drug resistance is caused by increased expression of *mdr* genes. Perhaps the most taxing question here is: how can MDRs bind and extrude a wide variety of different substrates? In fact, amino acid sequence comparisons reveal that MDRs have evolved multiple times from efflux proteins of much narrower substrate specificity. (Amino acid substitutions in the ancestral proteins have caused the switch to a broader substrate specificity.) Moreover, although MDRs extrude a variety of unrelated compounds, their preferred artificial substrates are almost invariably amphipathic cations. As these substances are able to partition into the membrane, the possibility that MDRs only

'consider' substances within the membrane as their ligands has been raised. It is now clear that LmrA, a functional bacterial homologue of mammalian P-glycoprotein, can pump ligands from the inner leaflet of the membrane to the exterior. Maybe mammalian P-glycoprotein has evolved its exceptional ability to flip drugs from the inner to the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane, because here they can then be detoxified, whereas extrusion would simply be followed by their re-entry into the cell. As it seemed likely that MDRs could have evolved to protect microbes from the potentially damaging effects of amphipathic cations, Lewis and colleagues searched for natural compounds of this type. They found that a group of plant alkaloids – the isoquinoline alkaloids, such as berberine and palmatine – fitted the bill, and that these had potent antimicrobial activity in the presence of MDR inhibitors. Moreover, they established that a berberine-producing plant also made two different MDR inhibitors. Multidrug resistance is a severe clinical problem, so there is real hope that these natural MDR inhibitors can be used in conjunction with conventional antimicrobials to overcome it.

Arsenic resistance genes are found in nearly all organisms, perhaps because the primordial soup was rich in dissolved metals, and therefore resistance to toxic metals was important to all early life forms. In the article by Bhattacharjee *et al*. we learn that membrane proteins with the ability to extrude arsenicals have evolved at least three times. In bacteria ArsB acts as a secondary transporter, catalysing the extrusion of arsenite coupled to the membrane potential. However, in some organisms the ArsA ATPase is also produced and it binds to ArsB, converting it to a primary transporter that extrudes arsenite at the expense of ATP hydrolysis. Interestingly, the ArsB membrane protein has a topological arrangement [N-in C-in with 12 membrane-spanning segments (MSSs)] that is more reminiscent of secondary rather than primary transporters. (ArsA homologues are found in bacteria through to man, but so far the physiological function of the eukaryotic ArsA homologues remains unknown.) Recently another family of membrane proteins that confer arsenite resistance has been identified in both bacteria and yeasts. One of these 10 MSS proteins, Acr3p of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, has now been shown to be a plasma membrane arsenite efflux protein. However, *Sacch. cerevisiae* also harbours the protein Ycf1p, a vacuolar membrane ABC transporter, which is known to confer cadmium resistance by pumping $Cd(GS)_2$ conjugates into the yeast vacuole. Recently it has become clear that Ycf1p also pumps arsenite into the vacuole. Homologues of Ycf1p and Acr3p are likely to exist in all eukaryotes.

Poolman highlights the fact that transporters do not accumulate solutes to such high levels as are predicted from the driving forces for these processes. In fact, leak pathways rarely make a significant contribution, at least in primary (ATP-driven) transport processes, and product inhibition is a major player. When cells are starved of energy and the ion motive force

drops, then solutes would be expected to leak out via their secondary transporters. However, in some microbes the solutes are retained because the transporters themselves are highly sensitive to changes in the internal pH, and as the pH value falls below the physiological level they lose activity. Other mechanisms such as inducer exclusion in Gram-negative bacteria, osmosensing and catabolite repression all act to regulate transport activity. This article serves as a salutary reminder that transporters are sophisticated devices, and even when we understand their basic mode of action, we can only meaningfully relate this to actual cellular physiology if we take into account mechanisms for modulating their activity to prevent catastrophically high solute accumulation.

Given the dearth of high-resolution structural information on membrane proteins, and the current explosion in genomic sequencing, molecular archaeological studies are particularly pertinent to the analysis of transmembrane transport systems (see Saier & Tseng, this volume). The considerable effort of Saier and co-workers has led to the identification of over 200 different families of transporters. These studies reveal that transporter families have arisen continuously over the last 4 billion years and some, for example the major facilitator superfamily, are ancient and ubiquitous, whilst others, for example the mitochondrial carrier family of anion exchangers, arose much later and are confined to particular eukaryotic organelles. We also learn that many permeases arose by tandem intragenic duplication and that a 6 TMS module is, for currently unknown reasons, particularly popular. Phylogenetic analysis is now sufficiently refined that virtually every newly sequenced transporter can be classified with respect to its structure, function and mechanism just by considering how similar it is in amino acid sequence to previously identified transporters.

The other contributions to this symposium are concerned specifically with the translocation of polypeptides across microbial membranes. No one chapter deals exclusively with the process by which polypeptides are translocated across the bacterial cytoplasmic membrane using the Sec machinery. This process is, however, briefly described by Filloux and alluded to by Soto & Hultgren, in their descriptions of two different pathways for the translocation of polypeptides from the periplasm to the exterior of Gram-negative bacteria, the substrates for which are Sec-dependent periplasmic proteins. However, Young *et al.* review our current knowledge of protein translocation across the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane, and it is clear that the translocon – the proteinaceous membrane channel through which the polypeptide exits the cytosol – as well as various features of the translocation process are fundamentally similar in bacterial and eukaryotic microbes. In recent years it has proved possible to complement the elegant genetic analysis of protein export in yeast with sophisticated *in vitro* studies, most notably involving the identification of cross-linking partners of translocating polypeptides, and fluorescence quenching studies.

Such studies are either impossible or extremely difficult to conduct on bacteria, largely because of the technical complications that result from having to turn the membrane vesicles derived from the bacterial cells inside-out in order to bring the cytoplasmic contents to the outside. Just as we had settled into thinking of the translocon as an environment for the one-way transport of unfolded polypeptides, the application of this barrage of elegant techniques has yielded some big surprises. These recent studies have revealed that the translocon is wider than required for linear extrusion of polypeptides, so have led us to consider that maybe polypeptides start to fold even within the translocon. We have also learnt that translocation will apparently run in reverse if the polypeptide is not properly modified or fails to fold, enabling its degradation via the cytosolic ubiquitin-proteasome pathway. There is a growing awareness of the importance of the gating at both ends of the translocon. The ribosome makes intimate contacts with the translocon and it has been suggested very recently that the ribosome controls translocon gating by a conformational mechanism. During translation, the ribosome undergoes conformational changes, which then induce conformational changes in the translocon to control gating.

Proteins destined for translocation across the bacterial cytoplasmic membrane or the eukaryotic ER membrane are made with hydrophobic N-terminal signal peptides that are essential for translocation, and, in the case of soluble proteins, are eventually proteolytically cleaved from the translocated protein. It has been known for over two decades that higher eukaryotes contain a ribonucleoprotein particle, termed signal recognition particle, or SRP, that recognizes signal peptides and binds and delivers nascent preproteins to the ER membrane, by docking with the SRP receptor. Although genetic screens failed to reveal a bacterial SRP, sequence comparisons eventually revealed that bacteria do contain an SRP, albeit of a rather more primitive form than in higher eukaryotes. For a long time no role in protein targeting could be positively ascribed to bacterial SRP, and it was argued that bacterial SRP could have a different function to mammalian SRP. Valent *et al*. provide us with a historical perspective on the discovery of bacterial SRP and the eventual acceptance of a role for it in targeting membrane proteins, in particular, to the cytoplasmic membrane. Since signal peptides differ considerably in amino acid sequence, a key question concerning the targeting of signal-peptide-containing proteins is: how can such diverse ligands be recognized by a single receptor (SRP)? The structure of the signal-peptide-binding domain of the P48 SRP component of *Thermus aquaticus* reveals that, as predicted more than 10 years ago, this highly hydrophobic methionine-rich domain forms a hydrophobic groove that is lined with flexible amino acid side chains. It is thus sufficiently large and pliable to be able to accommodate signal peptides of different shapes and sizes. Finally, SRP is proving to be ubiquitous – it is present in all bacteria

and eukaryotes so far examined, and it is found in the stroma of chloroplasts as well as the cytosol.

In the Gram-negative bacteria secretion of proteins to the medium can occur in two stages, with proteins being exported in a Sec-dependent fashion to the periplasm, and then being translocated across the outer membrane. Alternatively it can occur in a single step, with the exoproteins being transported from the cytoplasm across both the inner and outer membranes, without the involvement of the Sec machinery and a periplasmic intermediate. Type I secretion systems are the simplest and, perhaps for this reason, currently the best understood systems for the direct secretion of exoproteins from the cytoplasm to the exterior of Gram-negative bacteria. Most type I systems are responsible for the secretion of just one or a few closely related exoprotein substrates, belonging to the toxin, protease or lipase families. The first type I secretion system to be characterized, and the most extensively studied, is the system responsible for the secretion of α-haemolysin (HlyA) by haemolytic *Escherichia coli*. However, related systems have since been found in a wide variety of bacteria. They are responsible for the secretion of metalloproteases (*Erwinia chrysanthemi*), lipases (*Pseudomonas fluorescens*), S-layer proteins (*Campylobacter fetus* and *Caulobacter crescentus*) and, in some bacteria, several unrelated proteins (a metalloprotease, a lipase, a haem-binding protein and an S-layer protein in *Serratia marcescens*, and glycanases and a nodulation protein in *Rhizobium leguminosarum*) (Binet *et al*., 1997; Awram & Smit, 1998; Thompson *et al*., 1998; Kawai *et al*., 1998; Finnie *et al*., 1998). Type I secretion systems are relatively simple. Just three proteins form the substrate-specific channel and drive exoprotein transport through it to the exterior. As shown in Fig. 1(a), they are an ATP-binding cassette (ABC) protein exporter (e.g. HlyB), a membrane-fusion protein, or MFP (e.g. HlyD), and an outer membrane protein, or OMP (e.g. TolC). The ABC protein exporter is a polytopic inner membrane protein which recognizes the exoprotein substrate(s) and which binds and hydrolyses ATP. The MFP is an N-in C-out inner membrane protein. It interacts both with the ABC protein exporter and, via its extended C-terminal domain, with the periplasmic domain of the β-barrel OMP. Usually the three genes encoding the 'ABC exporter' are linked to those encoding the exoprotein substrates. However, NodO, one of four or more substrates for the chromosomally encoded type I exporter of *R. leguminosarum*, is plasmid-encoded (Finnie *et al*., 1997). Likewise, the gene encoding TolC, the OMP of the α-haemolysin secretion system, is unlinked to *hlyABD*. But TolC is also used by another ABC transporter, the colicin V transporter, and it has additional roles in colicin E1 permeation and chromosome segregation.

The exoprotein substrates do not have N-terminal signal peptides but instead they contain short C-terminal secretion signals. Their other striking characteristic is that many contain glycine-rich repeated motifs that are

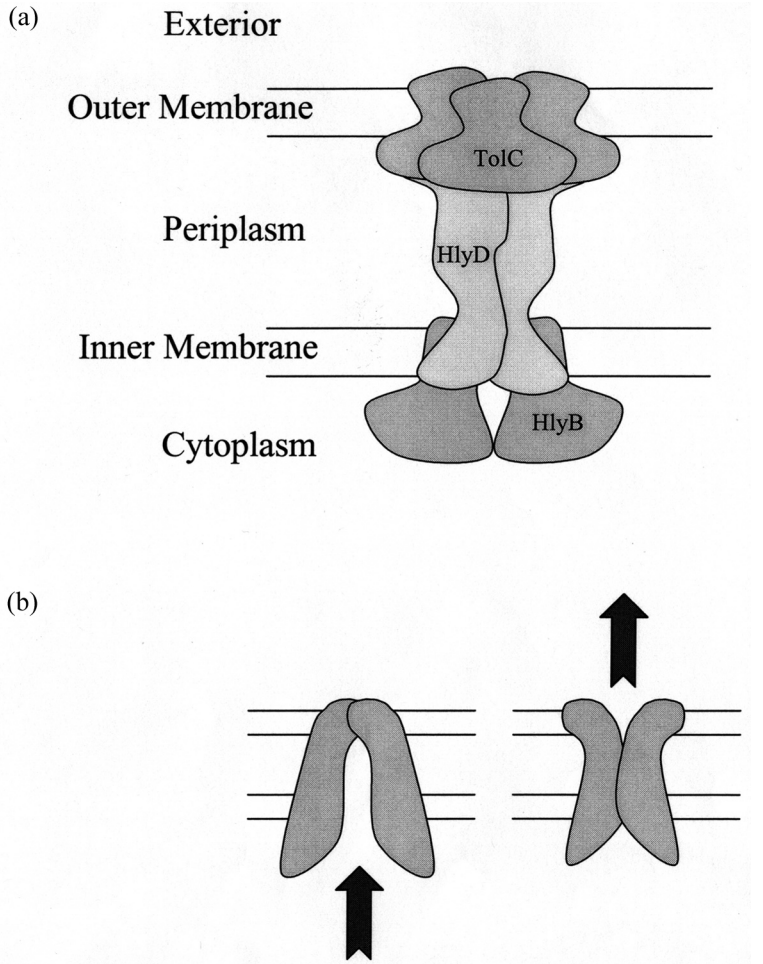

Fig. 1. Type I HlyA secretion system. (a) The three protein components of the secretion machinery are depicted. The polytopic inner membrane ABC protein exporter, HlyB, has a cytoplasmic ATPase domain. The MFP, HlyD, is a bitopic inner membrane protein with an extended C-terminal periplasmic domain. Its N-terminus contacts HlyB and its C-terminus interacts with the periplasmic domain of the outer membrane pore (the OMP), TolC. (b) The outward movement of HlyA is depicted by the filled arrow. According to current data, ATP and HlyA binding are believed to promote opening of the channel entrance (left-hand panel), whereas ATP hydrolysis is required to close the channel entrance and open the channel exit.

implicated in Ca^{2+}-binding, and, hence, rapid and stable folding of the proteins following their secretion. The precise nature of the C-terminal secretion signals currently remains elusive. Often the extreme C-terminus of the exoprotein consists of a negatively charged amino acid followed by several hydrophobic amino acids, and in some exoproteins an α-helical structure is believed to exist just N-terminal to this motif. In some exopro-

teins the glycine-rich repeats may play an additional role in helping to keep the targeting signal exposed on the surface of the protein, and hence visible to its receptor, the ABC protein. Signal recognition by the ABC protein is usually limited to exoproteins of the same type. But foreign proteins can often be recognized and secreted by an ABC exporter if they are fused to a cognate C-terminal signal. For example, when a C-terminal portion of HlyA was fused to β-lactamase (minus its N-terminal signal peptide) this normally periplasmic enzyme was efficiently and specifically secreted by *E. coli* in an HlyB- and HlyD-dependent fashion (Chervaux *et al.*, 1995). It has been noted that the *Caul. crescentus* S-layer protein is particularly abundant for a type I secretion product (accounting for 10–12% of the total cell protein) and therefore the possibility of using this ABC exporter to secrete foreign proteins looks particularly attractive.

Very recently, elegant studies by Thanabalu *et al.* (1998) have revealed some details of the dynamics of α-haemolysin export. Their strategy was to express HlyA, B, D and TolC in different combinations in *E. coli* and to analyse the complexes that formed (the components that could be cross-linked to one another) *in vivo*. They found that the ABC protein and the MFP formed a complex to which the OMP was recruited only when HlyA engaged the complex, and from which it separated after HlyA had been secreted. TolC was previously found to be a trimeric pore and in this study HlyD was also found to be trimeric and to form the primary inner membrane–outer membrane bridge. Intriguingly, ATP binding and substrate binding both promoted opening of the channel entrance, but ATP hydrolysis was required for HlyA to exit the channel. It is tempting to speculate that ATP hydrolysis is required to close the channel entrance and open the channel exit, thus ensuring gating of the channel, which is presumably necessary if leakage of cytoplasmic proteins to the exterior is to be prevented (see Fig. 1b). Finally, other studies, and in particular the work reported by Delepelaire & Wandersman (1998), highlight the possibility that some, perhaps all, exoproteins may have to be prevented from folding, or even actively unfolded, in order for them to be efficiently secreted by type I systems.

In comparison to type I export, the type III export process, which is responsible for the delivery of Yops (*Yersinia* outer proteins) from the cytosol of pathogenic *Yersinia* species to its outer surface, to the external medium, and into the cytosol of the eukaryotic host cell, is poorly understood. As discussed by Anderson *et al.*, some 25 genes are involved in specifying the type III machinery. Contact with eukaryotic cells at 37 °C induces the type III machinery and the programmed secretion of some 14 different Yops to their specific extracellular destinations. Intriguingly, the secretion signals of Yops, which lie within the first 15 or so codons of the *yop* genes, are of a distinctly different nature to all other targeting signals, in that they are tolerant of frame-shift mutations. Presumably these nucleotide-

encoded signals ensure that *yop* mRNAs are only translated when the ribosomes attached to them have docked onto the type III machinery. For some Yops, cytoplasmic chaperones are additionally required for their successful secretion. A comparison of the genes required for type III secretion in other Gram-negative pathogens reveals that homologues of nine proteins are found in all known type III machines, and that eight of these are homologous to products needed for the assembly of the flagellar basal body hook complex. The ninth is a multimeric outer membrane 'secretin' protein. Secretins form gated channels in the outer membrane and function in the translocation of proteins and bacteriophage across this membrane. Yops that are injected into eukaryotic cells must cross three membranes. It has been proposed that, for these Yops, the type III machine forms an injection device extending from the bacterial to the eukaryotic cytoplasm.

The main terminal branch of the general secretory pathway in Gram-negative bacteria, or the type II secretory pathway, is used by a wide variety of bacteria to transport exoproteins from the periplasm to the exterior, following their Sec-dependent translocation across the cytoplasmic membrane (Filloux, this volume). Some 14 or so products of linked genes, moderately to highly conserved in all the bacteria in which they have been found, form the export machinery. The clue to why the type II machinery should be so complex comes from the finding that the components include four polypeptides with N-termini resembling those of pilin subunits and a prepilin peptidase. The proteins they resemble are crucial components in the formation of type IV pili (long cell surface appendages at the poles of the producing bacteria). The prepilin peptidase is required for the processing of these 'pseudopilins', and, based on their strange fractionation (when overproduced they fractionate with the outer membrane), these subunits have been proposed to form a 'pseudopilus' – a rudimentary structure spanning the periplasm and connecting the inner and outer membranes. Other components of the type II machinery include a peripheral cytoplasmic membrane ATPase, which might be involved in driving the export of pseudopilins to the periplasm, and an outer membrane secretin, which, in its multimeric form, has a large central pore, some 95 nm wide. Further components are believed to energize gating of/transport through the pore, via a TonB-like energy transduction process. The pseudopilus, assuming it really exists, might either push exoproteins through the pore, or it might act like a cork to keep the pore blocked when not in use. Type II exoproteins do not share regions of amino acid sequence similarity, and molecular genetic analysis has revealed that their secretion signals are 'patch' signals, made up from different portions of the linear amino acid sequence. Conflicting data on the precise constitution of the secretion signal in specific exoproteins have led to the view that either the secretion signal is recognized as the exoprotein folds, or that it comprises a series of signals that are recognized sequentially

as the protein is directed outwards via the type II machine towards the exterior.

Gram-negative bacteria make many different kinds of pili and other organelles of attachment that play crucial roles in the early stages of bacterial infection. The chaperone–usher pathway, reviewed by Soto & Hultgren, is responsible for the assembly of many of these structures, and, amongst these, the expression and assembly of P pili and type 1 pili are currently the best understood. Eleven clustered *pap* genes are responsible for the assembly of P pili. The Pap subunits are translocated across the cytoplasmic membrane by the Sec machinery, but are retained on its periplasmic surface by their C-termini. The periplasmic PapD immunoglobulin-like chaperone then binds to a highly conserved C-terminal motif by β-zippering, and the Pap subunit, thus removed from the membrane, folds on the chaperone. The chaperone–subunit complexes are targeted to the outer membrane usher protein PapC. PapC is predicted to have a transmembrane β-barrel structure and a large periplasmic domain for interaction with the chaperone–subunit complexes. It assembles into liposomes as ring-shaped multimeric complexes with central pores of 2–3 nm diameter. The helicoidal pilus rod is, however, some 6–8 nm wide, but pili can be unwound into linear fibres, in which the subunits interact head-to-tail fashion, that are only about 2 nm wide. It has therefore been proposed that the polymerized subunits pass through the usher pore in their extended form, and that their maturation to the final helical form helps drive the pilus assembly process. Intriguingly, recent studies have revealed that attachment of type-1-piliated bacteria to murine host cells is accompanied by an apparent shortening of the pilus, which could reflect its retraction or the cessation of pilus growth. Whatever the molecular basis, presumably there is a consequential build up of excess subunits in the periplasm. It is already established that subunit misfolding or chaperone absence is sensed by the CpxA–CpxR two-component system, and results in the up-regulation of expression of periplasmic folding factors and proteases. Hung & Hultgren (1998) propose that activation of this pathway by host attachment also serves to switch on expression of an array of virulence genes that are needed to establish infection.

E. coli, the laboratory favourite amongst bacteria, must be quite brutally treated in order to make it competent to take up DNA. The bacteria are subjected to either abrupt shifts in divalent cation concentration and temperature or to high-voltage electrical pulses. Both treatments presumably induce transient pores within their membranes, through which the DNA can enter. However, some bacteria are naturally transformable, and Lacks discusses how DNA is taken up by such bacteria. In *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, one of the best studied cases, this process entails DNA binding to external receptors, its conversion to the single-stranded form, and then its unwinding and entry into the cell, 3′ end first, at a rate of about 100 nucleotides s^{-1}. Meanwhile the other strand is degraded and released from

the cell surface. Amongst the *Strep. pneumoniae* proteins that are essential for DNA uptake are several related to the type IV pilins, and an energy-transducing protein and a membrane-spanning protein, responsible for their export, as well as a prepilin peptidase. The presumption is that the synthesis of these proteins results in the formation of an external appendage – necessary in some way that is not yet understood – for DNA uptake. Amongst the other proteins essential for uptake is one with multiple hydrophobic stretches which is a good candidate for being the membrane channel through which the DNA enters. Intriguingly, in the case of another naturally transformable bacterium, *Haemophilus influenzae*, the DNA was found to be contained within a membrane vesicle (a transformasome) prior to its uptake. One proposal is that the binding of DNA to the bacterium's surface triggers membrane curvature and vesicularization of the DNA. Fusion of the transformasome with the bacterial membrane has further been proposed to be involved in delivering the DNA to the uptake apparatus. Whether this process is somehow related to membrane vesicle trafficking processes in eukaryotic cells remains to be seen.

Two chapters near the end of this symposium volume deal with various aspects of the import and localization of proteins in two very different kinds of eukaryotic organelles, peroxisomes and chloroplasts. Proteins carrying chloroplast transit peptides are imported post-translationally across the chloroplast double membrane into the stroma. From the stroma some are targeted to and then translocated across, or integrated into, the thylakoid membrane. Robinson *et al.* review the recent rapid progress in our understanding of these targeting and translocation mechanisms. In keeping with the prokaryotic origin of chloroplasts, proteins with classical N-terminal signal peptides are directed across the thylakoid membrane in a SecA-dependent manner. Moreover, a stromal SRP exists, and many thylakoid membrane proteins require stromal SRP for their delivery to the membrane, after which they are integrated into the membrane in a Sec-dependent fashion. (As in bacteria, SRP acts only on the more hydrophobic secretion targets.) Translocation across the thylakoid membrane can also occur via the ΔpH-dependent pathway, which is unique in that it requires neither soluble proteins nor NTPs. Preproteins that use this pathway have N-terminal signal peptides that appear to differ only subtly from classical signal peptides, most notably in that they contain a twin-arginine motif immediately N-terminal to the hydrophobic core. However, such preproteins are not substrates for the Sec machinery, and it is possible that their signal peptides incorporate a 'Sec-avoidance' signal. Moreover, the proteins to which they are attached are inherently difficult for the Sec machinery to translocate, probably because they fold tightly. Remarkably, this ΔpH-dependent pathway has the capacity to translocate fully folded proteins (such as the methotrexate-bound form of DHFR). Homologues of two recently characterized components of this machinery are found in

nearly all bacteria examined, and a subset of bacterial preproteins that have the twin-arginine motif in their signal peptides have been identified. Their mature products are periplasmic proteins that bind redox cofactors, almost certainly in the cytoplasm, and thus, like their thylakoid counterparts, are translocated across the membrane in a fully folded state. How fully folded proteins can be translocated across tightly sealed membranes remains to be seen. Certainly thylakoids, unlike bacteria, offer excellent *in vitro* systems for the analysis of this translocation pathway. Finally, some proteins can integrate into the membranes of protease-treated thylakoids, implying that they are able to spontaneously insert into the membrane. Whether this pathway shares fundamental similarities with that followed by the major coat proteins of filamentous bacteriophage as they insert into the bacterial cytoplasmic membrane remains to be seen.

Lopez-Huertas & Baker discuss the biogenesis of peroxisomes. Unlike chloroplasts and mitochondria, peroxisomes contain no genetic material, and different subsets of these organelles have different metabolic functions. Most peroxisomal proteins are post-translationally imported from the cytosol. Most matrix proteins have a C-terminal tripeptide targeting signal consisting of a small neutral amino acid, followed by a basic amino acid and terminating with a hydrophobic amino acid. Others have an N-terminal targeting signal and/or internal targeting signals. The Pex5p and Pex7p receptors recognize the C-terminal (PTS1 type) and N-terminal (PTS2 type) signals, respectively, and probably act by binding to the proteins containing them in the cytoplasm and delivering them to the peroxisomal membrane. (The targeting signals within peroxisomal membrane proteins remain poorly understood.) Remarkably, peroxisomes can import folded and even oligomeric proteins. Only one of the monomers of the dimeric malate dehydrogenase of *Sacch. cerevisiae* needs to contain the peroxisome-targeting signal for import to occur. Elegant genetic selections have been used to obtain mutants defective in peroxisome biogenesis, but our knowledge of the import machinery remains incomplete and the actual import mechanism is currently unknown. Clearly it must be significantly different to chloroplast and mitochondrial import, where precursors are maintained or rendered unfolded prior to import, translocated into these organelles in an extended conformation, and then refolded within them. But as yet there is no evidence either for the existence of any sufficiently large regulated pore (like a nuclear pore) or for any endocytic-like process. On the other hand, fully folded proteins are translocated across the thylakoid membrane and the bacterial cytoplasmic membrane, using the ΔpH-dependent pathway (or its bacterial equivalent). Finally, there is now a wealth of circumstantial evidence that peroxisomes do not receive all their proteins by import from the cytoplasm, but that some peroxisomal membrane proteins and lipids are derived, by vesicle budding and fusion, from the ER.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This symposium serves to remind us how difficult membrane proteins are to analyse, and how resourceful those working on them are. We are optimistic that, as we move into the next millennium, new approaches will be devised that will provide deeper insights into their functioning, much as advances in crystallization methods, strategies for genetic screening, gene fusion studies, molecular archaeological studies, and elegant *in vitro* studies on reconstructed transport pathways and translocation intermediates have done in the 1980s and 1990s. In this chapter we have discussed that hydrophilic proteins can be transported across hydrophobic membranes by a diversity of transport machineries. At last we are beginning to appreciate the molecular details of how some of these machines function. Recent studies have certainly made us revise our view that polypeptides are necessarily translocated across biological membranes in unfolded states. Understanding the structure and function of the machineries that translocate folded proteins is one of the major goals for the future. Some of the other major items on the agenda will be understanding how channels within membranes are gated, a process that is, presumably, crucially important for maintaining the integrity of membrane-bound cellular compartments, the roles of molecular chaperones, and the processes by which each of the many different types of targeting signals within extracytoplasmic proteins are recognized.

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